



Kang, W. I. K., & Fornes, G. (2017). Where are they going? Case of British and Japanese human resource management. *Journal of Asia Business Studies*, 11(3), 296-322. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JABS-07-2015-0111>

Peer reviewed version

Link to published version (if available):
[10.1108/JABS-07-2015-0111](https://doi.org/10.1108/JABS-07-2015-0111)

[Link to publication record in Explore Bristol Research](#)
PDF-document

This is the author accepted manuscript (AAM). The final published version (version of record) is available online via Emerald at <https://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/abs/10.1108/JABS-07-2015-0111>. Please refer to any applicable terms of use of the publisher.

University of Bristol - Explore Bristol Research

General rights

This document is made available in accordance with publisher policies. Please cite only the published version using the reference above. Full terms of use are available:
<http://www.bristol.ac.uk/red/research-policy/pure/user-guides/ebr-terms/>



Where are they going? Case of British and Japanese Human Resource Management

Journal:	<i>Journal of Asia Business Studies</i>
Manuscript ID	JABS-07-2015-0111.R3
Manuscript Type:	Research Paper
Keywords:	comparative analysis, business and society, cross-cultural analysis, human resource management, corporate social responsibility, qualitative research

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Where are they going? Case of British and Japanese Human Resource Management

Introduction

As Carney et al. (2009) and Pudelko (2009) point out, with the recent global financial crisis and globalisation, many organisational management practices are transitioning dynamically. This is further evidenced by wide acceptance of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in management practice. CSR addresses broad areas of organisations and society, and one of the key areas is its emphasis on stakeholders' expectations (Aguinis et al. 2012; Geva 2008). Employees are considered primary stakeholders (Bauman and Skitka 2012; Phillips 2003) and they are scarce and valuable resources given our current ageing population (Guest et al. 2003). It is argued that one of the key challenges that organisations face in the modern period is to achieve competitive advantage through long-term sustainability, along with 'responsible competition' (Saeed et al. 2012). To do so, it is imperative to utilise these valuable and scarce resources well (Barney 1995). In this paper, we explore the extent to which employee management styles are converging/diverging as a result of CSR and the nature of institutional factors behind this convergence/divergence. From the institutional theory perspective, the transition is due to increasing global societal pressure resulted from globalisation and rapid technological development; further, such pressure leads organisations to converge upon common models or behaviours, regardless of their national boundaries (DiMaggio et al. 1983, 1991; Meyer 2008; Jepperson 2001; Meyer et al. 1977, 1997; Scott 1987). However, others argue that despite the transition, divergence would occur due to different societal and cultural values, which cause them to have different national business systems (NBS) (Whitley 1994; Hall and Soskice 2001). Such debates around convergence and divergence also appear in the CSR field, though they are relatively new. CSR infrastructures, such as UN Global Compact and Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), among many other CSR consultancies, show signs of convergence (see Waddock 2008). Meanwhile, Matten and Moon (2008) show that diversity occurs as a result of differences in NBS. However, these debates have been largely based on the Western perspective of CSR. A majority of CSR international infrastructures are originated in the US or Europe, and as Wang and Juslin (2009) pointed out, they do not coordinate well with the Chinese business system because they are established without serious consideration of how well their systems can be associated with the Eastern business systems, which are very different from the West.

Expanding Wang and Juslin's argument, this paper contributes to the convergence/divergence debate through examinations and comparisons of Human Resource Management (HRM) in one Western nation and one Eastern nation (the UK and Japan) after the introduction of CSR, and explores the extent of their convergence/divergence. Many studies have been done on understanding Japanese management and its international comparison (Beechler et al. 1996; Dore 1973; Hatvany et al. 1981; Jacoby 2005; Keely 2001; Kopp 1994; Morris et al. 2000; Oliver and Wilkinson 1992; Tayeb 1994), due to Japanese economic success that earned much praise in the 1980s (before its downfall in 1990s), as well as its significant impact on the UK's HRM in the past. However, given that both Japan and the UK are the leading contributors to CSR, along with the US (Wang and Juslin 2009; Lee and Choi 2002), it is worth revisiting them. Furthermore, while the two nations share very different NBS (compartmentalised vs highly coordinated) and societal-cultural background (individualism vs collectivism) (Whitley 2000; Hofstede 2001), they both participate in various Western-developed international CSR infrastructures, such as UN Global Compact, GRI, and ISO 26000. Thus, these two nations can be argued as ideal environments to measure the

extent of convergence/divergence, and (more importantly) to understand institutional influences supporting or impeding any changes. In order to assist this paper, the research capitalises primarily on NBS. Though institutional theory and NBS accept the influence of institutional environments on organisations, there is a key difference. As implied at the beginning, institutional theory emphasises global diffusion of practices as a result of global isomorphic pressures through coercive, mimetic, and normative process (DiMaggio et al. 1983, 1991). NBS, on the other hand, points out that there is an historically grown institutional framework, which also includes societal-cultural institutions, and influences businesses that operate within it (Whitley 1994; 2000). It acknowledges the institutional differences between nations and business systems, and further allows comparison of two nations by identifying key points of contrast between the business systems (Matten and Moon 2008). Therefore, it is particularly useful in cross-national comparison, in contrast to institutional theory, which shows weakness in explaining how practices are interpreted elsewhere (Tempel and Walgenbach 2007). Thus, it can be understood as an ideal model to measure the extent of convergence/divergence of HRM in the two nations after the introduction of CSR.

With this in mind, in the following section, CSR will be introduced, with a focus on HRM using the existing literature, which will be followed by a review of NBS as an analytical framework. A brief overview of NBS and HRM in the UK and Japan will follow, and then a description of methodology, presentation of data results, and discussion. Finally, the limitations to this research will be outlined, as well as possible recommendations for future research.

Literature Review

CSR and HRM

The CSR doctrine argues that corporations carry certain responsibilities to society as well as to their stakeholders, and should act accordingly to benefit society and contribute towards social development (Carroll 1979; Margolis et al. 2003; Garriga et al. 2004; Godfrey et al. 2007; Beurden et al. 2008; Crane et al. 2008). However, its philosophical and conceptual aspect resulted in a lack of a framework and guidance for managers as to how to behave, and much attention has been paid to defining the responsibilities they carry, and the extent of such responsibilities. As a result, various different definitions and models emerged, which can be categorised as follows: instrumental, political, ethical, and integrative (Garriga et al. 2004). However, through constant study and improvement, amongst these four theoretical groups, the integrative approach appears to have gained prominence, as it attempts to integrate ethical responsibilities into corporate organisations' economic responsibilities, and several models were developed within this approach (Geva 2008; Garriga et al. 2004). This concept of integrative theories of CSR is well-embedded in the following definition of CSR:

Context-specific organisational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance. (Aguinis et al. 2012, p. 933)

The term 'stakeholder' is from stakeholder theory and was introduced by Freeman, who identified stakeholders as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives" (Phillips 2003, p. 120). They can be categorised into two types: normative, understood as entities that share direct moral obligations with the organisation; and derivative, who may not possess direct influence over the organisation's actions (and vice versa), but can affect the normative stakeholders. Thus,

the given definition argues that CSR should meet the expectations of these stakeholders, while integrating all responsibilities of a corporate organisation into its decision-making process, which includes moral responsibility.

Based on this logic of CSR, HRM and CSR are highly inter-related. As argued previously, employees are considered normative stakeholders directly relevant to organisations' operations. Employees can act as agents to direct organisations to behave socially responsibly (Aguilera et al. 2007), while perceiving, evaluating, judging and reacting to organisations' CSR practices as stakeholders (Rowley and Berman 2000; Rupp et al. 2006). Moreover, as a part of its moral obligations towards its stakeholders, organisations are expected to ensure the quality of employees' working life (job quality, work-life quality, and working life) as well as labour standards and equal opportunities (Cooke and He 2010). Such high levels of interaction are also supported by other evidence: socially responsible companies can appear more attractive to potential employees, resulting in competitive advantage (Turban and Greening 1997; Albinger and Freeman 2000); and employees are more committed to, and satisfied with, their jobs (Brammer et al. 2007). Figure 1 presents that socially responsible HRM practices and HR practices can promote firm's CSR practices and vice versa. This consequently affects the CSR outcome and enhances the HR outcome, both influencing and assisting the other (Cooke and He 2010). This suggests that by adopting socially responsible HRM practices, organisations can achieve social responsibility and competitive advantage, and through combining CSR and HRM, long-term sustainability (Sharma et al. 2009).

[Insert Figure 1 Here]

While the link between CSR and HRM is established, what are socially responsible HRM practices? First is systematic communication with employees to understand employees' needs and promote employee participation and engagement in organisations' CSR efforts (Cooke and He 2010). Second is training, which can create ethical labour standards. Inyang et al. (2011) found that employees are more likely to respond when training programs incorporate CSR objectives; and when they are trained on CSR policy and projects, they are more likely to perceive CSR as important. Third is diversity management to promote equal opportunities. Diversity is becoming increasingly important in organisations in our current multicultural society (Jamali and Dirani 2014). Therefore, diversity, responsibility, and HRM should not be considered separately, but as key components of organisations' CSR efforts (Jonsen et al. 2013).

The literature indicates that socially responsible HRM can sustain competitive advantage with much evidence of inter-relations between HRM practice and increased productivity, improved efficiency, and increased firm value (Guest et al. 2003; Bjorkman et al. 2007; Guthrie 2001; MacDuffie 1995; Huselid 1995). However, there are also some clear differences identified between different business systems' HRM models. With globalisation, it can often be seen that companies operate across national boundaries, and it has become almost impossible to apply home practices abroad without concern for local conditions. For instance, Japanese firms moving into the Chinese market alter their business models to fit local conditions (see Buckley and Horn 2009). Organisations appear to be no longer looking to simply adopt the 'best practice model', but instead are looking for ways to create 'best fit' practice models through integration and combination, causing differences in HRM practices (Stravrou 2010; Pudenko 2009; Stiles 2009). As the study of Stravrou et al. (2010) shows, exploring HRM and firm performance in Europe from the NBS perspective, there are certain differences in HRM practices based on their business systems. This indicates that East Asian

companies may not be settled with application of the Western model of CSR, which was formed based on the Western business system, but rather adopt the core concept of CSR into their existing business models, causing possible divergence. This is further supported by 'crossvergence theory' of Ralston (2008) and Jamali and Neville (2011). They both argue that convergence or divergence does not occur separately, but socio-cultural aspects and business ideology / global convergence and local divergence interact together to form complex hybrid system. Therefore, as Aycan (2005) and Gerhert and Fang (2005) point out, it is important to understand the relationship between socio-cultural and institutional factors and HRM practice. This is what makes NBS the most appropriate theoretical framework for the purpose of this study. NBS does not take a resource-based view or human capital theory, but focuses on how human capital is managed. It sees HRM as a collective outcome of institutional settings, such as labour market structure, training and education mechanisms, and unions (Morgan et al. 2005; Whitley 2000), which are influenced by societal and cultural norms.

NBS as analytical framework

NBS and institutional theory share the same concept, which is that organisations adapt to institutional environments. However, unlike institutional theory, which emphasises global diffusion of practices through isomorphic pressures, NBS focuses on institutional pressures at national level and the effect on organisations (Tempel and Walgenbach 2007; Amable 2003). NBS argues that a 'dominant' pattern of ownership systems, inter-firm relations, and employment relations in a given country can differ depending on its institutional frameworks (political, financial, education and labour, and cultural systems), and therefore can lead to the formation of distinctive business systems (Whitley 1994, 2000; Jamali and Neville 2011; Matten and Moon 2008; Tempel and Walgenbach 2007). Such systems emerge over time in a national market economy due to the institutional settings that pressure market organisations or firms to behave in certain ways (Whitley 2007). The fundamentals of NBS lie in historic, societal and cultural norms (Hasegawa et al. 2009); the institutional settings of a nation are devised by people (North 1990) based upon society's social norms to regulate and create behaviour patterns that are predictable according to the social norms (Hasegawa et al. 2009; Whitley 1994, 2000). Chong (2000) argues that social norms can be understood as 'accepted' conventions and regulations that have emerged from values, both formally and informally:

Social norms and values establish ideal forms of behaviour, assign priority to different points of view and ways of life, and affect individual choice by coordinating expectations and increasing the attractiveness of certain alternatives over others. They are manifest in all walks of life: in our personal relationships, families, churches, schools, places of employment, at social functions, on the street, and in the marketplace.

(Chong 2000, p. 5)

Institutions established based upon this notion of social norms, therefore, can be understood as cognitive, normative, and behavioural systems of a society (Scott 1987), which sets formal and informal "rules of the game in a society" (North 1990, p. 3), including "rules, regulations, norms, and understandings" (Morgan et al. 2005, p. 3), which influence "forms, outcomes, and dynamics of economic organisations" (Morgan et al. 2005, p. 3) through constraining or enabling certain patterns of behaviour. Therefore the outcome of such a framework is ideal business systems specific to a society, sector, or nation, and as a player, an organisation is likely to act within the rules and accept certain aspects of the society's norms, making them behave differently from other firms of different social backgrounds (Whitley 1994, 2000; Hasegawa et al. 2009; Sako 2006; North 1990). Based on the identified institutions and societal-cultural norms, key business system characteristics become evident:

primary means of owner control (direct, alliance, market contracting); extent of ownership integration of production chains; extent of ownership integration of sectors (ownership system); extent of alliance coordination of production chains; extent of collaboration between competitors; extent of alliance coordination of sectors (inter-firm relations); employer-employee interdependence; and delegation to, and trust of, employees (employer-employee relations) (Whitley 2000). Whitley (2000) argues that these key characteristics determine the types of business systems: fragmented, coordinated industrial district, compartmentalised, state organised, collaborative, and highly coordinated.

Relating the foregoing to the research questions raised in this paper, NBS provides the most suitable analytical base to capture the complexities of institutional relations with HRMs of two different contexts that share very different societal-cultural backgrounds, and the extent of their convergence/divergence. Due to the nature of CSR, it is important to consider the social aspects of an organisation; and in an international context, such social values/concepts differ from nation to nation, which will cause them to function differently, and this also applies to HRM systems. As NBS argues, there are institutions, either formal or informal, that allow certain types of HRM system to function in an economy and enable certain types to operate better and more efficiently than in other economies, due to their distinctive societal characteristics and institutional settings. Ignjatovic et al. (2003) reach a similar conclusion, that certain HRM practices appear appropriate in one culture, but less so in another. Aycan (2005) also shows a moderating effect of cultural, institutional, and structural factors on HRM practices among countries. In addition to the empirical support, NBS argues that there are two institutions that exert influence on HRM: work organisations or professional associations such as trade unions or enterprise unions, education and training systems (Morgan et al. 2005; Whitley 1994, 2000). In the case of the former, the strengths of those organisations can determine the level of communication and extent of managerial control i.e. strict discipline or an encouragement of responsibility (Preuss et al. 2009; Whitley 1994). The latter determines employers' perceptions of their responsibility to provide training as well as their approach towards training (Hyman 2004; Preuss et al. 2009; Whitley 1994). A combination of the two institutional effects, consequently, shapes one's position within the labour market (Hyman 2004; Preuss et al. 2009). Thus, based on this logic of NBS, HRM practices emerge as a result of institutional settings that are created or established under the influence of societal and cultural norms.

However, societal and cultural norms are not fixed factors: they can change or be pressured by external shocks such as globalization or a crisis (Human Resource Management International Digest 2009). Moreover, changes in institutional settings can also occur, not necessarily due to the changes in societal and cultural norms but through external pressure, and can exert pressure on existing societal and cultural norms (Morgan et al. 2005). In relation to this paper, the introduction of CSR as an external shock or external pressure has brought certain changes about in institutional settings. As identified in the previous section, in order to be understood as socially responsible, HRM practices require systematic communication, training and education with integrated CSR objectives and diversity management. Whilst institutions such as work organisations or professional associations can be considered institutional settings for systematic communication, training and education remains another HRM-related institution. However, equal opportunities and/or diversity management were not considered institutional requirements prior to CSR. This is a consequence of changes in societal norms, brought by globalization and rapid societal changes. Hence, based on the argument of previous section on CSR-HRM and the logic of NBS, a new framework to assist CSR-HRM research based on NBS can be structured (Figure

2), synthesized as the core analytical framework for this study.

[Insert Figure 2 Here]

Figure 2 captures the complexity of institutional pressure on HRM practices while incorporating CSR; this allows comparison against another contexts. There are five HRM related institutional settings: state, cultural system, work organisation, education and training, and diversity. All of these can be influenced by or influence national historic, societal, and cultural norms. Based upon the norms and institutional settings, an organisational shape emerges. Among the five institutional settings, diversity, education and training, and work organisation are highly inter-related with socially responsible HRM practices. In other words, the three institutional settings are directly connected to organisations' socially responsible HRM practices, which consequently affect firms' CSR and HR outcomes. Thus, by understanding the three key institutional settings, it is possible to answer the main question that this paper addresses, which is whether there is a convergence or divergence in HRM practices after CSR from two very different contexts, and importantly the extent of the institutional role in supporting or impeding convergence/divergence. Based upon this, the following two research questions can be derived:

1. To what extent is convergence/divergence occurring in the two very different contexts?

2. Which of these three institutions are causing or impeding convergence/divergence?

The framework presented in Figure 2 can be very useful in analysing and understanding convergence/divergence of British and Japanese HRM practices, as it captures an overview of a context's HRM in relation to CSR with understanding of the complex nature of institutional influence on national HRM practice. Moreover, it allows comparison of two different contexts (the UK and Japan) at a national level within the same framework. As Carney et al. (2009) argue, as a result of globalization, the recent Global Financial Crisis and the declining economy of Japan, the reality of HRM practice is transitioning dynamically. While the transition certainly includes wide adoption of CSR at a global level, understanding the transition and extent of convergence/divergence and institutional pressure can contribute to ongoing debates in CSR-HRM convergence and divergence discourse (Jamali and Neville 2011; Matten and Moon 2008; Preuss et al. 2009; Zhao 2014).

Methodology

Though Stravrou et al. (2010) has revealed the existence of differences in HRM practice among European countries as a result of their different business systems, along with other studies (e.g. Ignjatovic et al. 2003; Aycan 2005), the important question is whether such differences apply to East Asia. Therefore, the UK and Japan are chosen for the purposes of this paper, largely due to the significant differences between the two nations in terms of business system and societal-cultural context, which are of polar types.

Data sample and profile

The study adopted a case study based on a theoretical sampling method to select cases, which implies that the cases are selected not only because of their representativeness and richness in data, but also because they fit the theoretical purpose of the paper (Eisenhardt 1989; Eisenhardt et al. 2007). Based on this, the researcher selected six cases in order to maximise the manageability of the data, supported by Eisenhardt (1989) and Perry (1998).

The first two cases were selected due to their size (judged by their income levels based on Global Fortune 500 in 2012) and their position in the nation's economy, along with their traditional value within the business system. As a result, Companies A and 1 are selected. Company A is one of the top three companies in the UK in terms of income; one of the oldest companies; and the third-largest Multi-National Corporation (MNC) in the world in its sector. Company 1 is the largest trading company of a *keiretsu* group, which has been understood as the central figure in the traditional Japanese business system. Moreover, based on the FTSE4GOOD index in 2012, both organisations are among the top CSR performing companies in their respective nations. Therefore, the two organisations' contributions to their national economies, their historic value and their performance in the CSR field in their own nations mean they should be regarded as representative cases for the two nations.

The next two cases were selected from the mid-range income group. Their historic value and industrial sectors were considered important in the selection procedure. Whilst the service sector's contribution to the UK's GDP accounts for 78%, the financial sector plays the dominant role within the service sector; as of 2013, it is the largest contributor to the UK's GDP and GDP growth. Therefore, Company B is selected, because it is one of the oldest financial institutions in the UK; it has always been a British company; and it has its own uniqueness by going through the largest transition since the Global Financial Crisis in 2007. Moreover, it was once regarded as one of the top socially responsible companies in the UK prior to the crisis, and is now pushing hard on CSR issue as a part of its recovery. Unlike the UK, the Japanese business system and economic development has largely been focused on manufacturing and advanced technology. However, much previous research was based on its manufacturing industry i.e. the automobile industry, despite the fact that its electronic goods industry is the largest industrial sector. Therefore, Company 2 was selected, as it is one of the oldest electronics company in Japan at mid-range income level, with focus on providing both household and industrial electronic goods, unlike its counterparts. It is also the company that brought customer-related CSR approaches to Japan, and is regarded as one of the top performing organisations in terms of HRM-related CSR, like Company B, based on CSRHub. Thus they carry both historical and socio-cultural aspects of Japanese business systems, while being understood as better CSR performing organisations over their counterparts.

Unlike the previous four cases (A, B, 1, and 2), the last two cases were selected based on their ownership structures i.e. privately owned. A nation's economy is formed with various ownership types of businesses, and privately-owned companies play an important role. This implies that privately-owned companies must be regarded as another representative group of a nation's business system. Moreover, a privately-owned company's management is largely affected by the owners' perceptions, vision, and ideology of management rather than the institutional settings. Therefore, difference in ownership structures can result in possible different approaches to HRM practice, and thus it is important to consider ownership structure as another theoretical category for this paper's purposes. The UK has the third-largest share of global pharmaceutical R&D and is regarded as the most productive manufacturing industry in the UK with the highest Gross Value Added (value of goods and services produced by the industry). Company C is the only privately-owned enterprise in the industry, but also the UK's largest privately-owned enterprise. In Japan, the beverage and food industry has a very large market share. Company 3 is the oldest and largest privately-owned company in this sector, and the largest wholly privately-owned enterprise in Japan.

The qualities and historical values of each case as well as its CSR element led the researcher to believe that they are appropriate for the purpose of this study. They each carry certain distinctive features of each business system and 'social legitimacy'. Thus, it can be argued that they are suitable cases to be representative of the two nations.

[Insert Table 1 Here]

Data collection method

Data collection was carried out in three stages: 1) qualitative methods, involving observations and semi-structured interviews with experts, senior managers of each case, and employees in both formal and informal settings; 2) archival research using publicly-available documents, data and company reports (including Nikkei Weekly newspapers, organisations' Annual Reports, Sustainability Reports, the Economist, etc.); 3) corroborating the data with a third party who is an expert in both UK and Japanese companies' CSR management to ensure validity. This was conducted through three hours of interviews, and unlike the other interviews with experts or senior managers, questions were designed to confirm findings from the previous two datasets. During the preliminary phase, background information collection and archival research were conducted to gather data on Japanese and British historical, cultural, and social contexts; the researcher was further able to acquire data on what the selected cases claim to be practicing in terms of employment relations. Interviews with the senior managers of each case and fellow researchers with expertise in that nation's business system were carried out, and gathering information through observation. This process allowed the researcher to gather data that cannot be gained from the existing literature. Interviews were conducted in semi-structured formats to enhance the information-gathering capability; these lasted approximately two to three hours, allowing the interviewer and participants freedom to elaborate on their interpretations while maintaining the broad themes of the interview, which were based on the three key elements in CSR-HRM mentioned in the literature review, as follows:

1. Employee expectation measurement (systematic communication): as was argued, trade unions' influence can be an important determinant for a company's strategic choices regarding HRM (Whitley 2000; Wallis et al. 2005). In a nation where trade unions are strong, they are more likely to be involved in a company's employee management and can establish strong employer-employee relationships; however, if the trade unions are decentralised, the reverse may occur. Therefore, understanding how an organisation communicates with its employees would allow the researcher to understand the role of trade unions in terms of HRM practice at firm levels; and further assist in determining the nature of employer-employee relationships.

2. Training: training and education is one of the key institutional settings that influences a nation's HRM practice (Whitley 1994). As indicated in the literature review, the level of CSR incorporation into the existing training scheme affects the employees' perception of the organisations' CSR outcomes. In a nation heavily reliant on the internal labour market (as in Japan), training is firm- or industry-specific to raise competitive advantage of both organisations and employees (Matsuzuka 2002). On the other hand, in individualistic cultures like the UK, training is more role-specific and outcome-oriented (Aycan 2005; Stravrou et al. 2010). Therefore, understanding the current nature of training can be a key determinant in identifying both labour market systems and employee management of an organisation, generalist or specialist.

3. Diversity: This does not only refer to gender diversity, but also diversity in ethnicity and nationality. This variable is selected to help identify the nature of the labour market system, with the assistance of another variable. As argued, the collectivist nature of Japanese society has created an environment where the workplace is regarded as an extension of family, which is not a familiar concept to those in individualist states (Tayeb 1994; Ueda 2011). Further, in addition to the ‘stickiness of the Japanese society’ (Salsberg et al. 2011), low mobility of employees and the ‘lifetime employment’ created by internal labour market system are more likely to discourage diversification and individualisation of employees (Sako and Sato 1997), creating an unfriendly environment for foreign employees. However, given that society is becoming multicultural as a result of globalisation, diversity is also understood as degree of equal opportunities to employees and being socially responsible. Therefore, as Figure 1 indicated, measuring the level of diversity is another essential step to understand a business system's convergence/divergence in terms of CSR-HRM.

Using semi-structured interviews based on these three themes raises the possibility for the researcher to obtain unexpected knowledge and further expand the data in regards to employee management. Therefore, the interview questions remained within the three themes, but the questions were varied and flexible depending on the responses. Every interview was recorded by a voice recorder, with the participants’ permission. Interviews were conducted in English; however, in Japan, due to the language barrier, one interview was carried out in Japanese in the presence of an interpreter, though the researcher remained in charge of the session, whilst the others were conducted in English. In the last phase, a data validity check was performed i.e. the transcribed data were double-checked with the participants and interpreter. Further archival research and an interview with a neutral party were also carried out. A neutral perspective on both Japanese and British business systems and management is important to this study, as it can check the validity of data and balance data that might be biased. To find an expert who can provide a neutral perspective, the authors contacted the Japanese Chamber of Commerce in the UK, who introduced an organisation that advises Japanese companies that wish to operate in the UK on their CSR management and policies.

Data analysis

In order to understand 'characteristics of language' and discover regularities in the sheer volume of qualitative data, content analysis and grounded theory analysis were used through coding analysis. The content analysis serves to transform the attributes in the text into objects through systematic coding mechanisms (Berg et al. 2012; Bauer et al. 2000). With the aid of grounded theory analysis that allow ‘the discovery of regularities’, it allows new information to arise from the text or conversation, and become usable for research purposes. This makes it imperative for this research, as the majority of the data collected are in the form of text from archival research and interviews. Coding allows a large amount of descriptive data to become manageable and systematic; and further, a possible emergence of new theoretical prepositions or new insights that the researchers may not have been aware of prior to data analysis can occur (Douglas 2003). Each response from the interviews was labelled by theme and coded according to specific thematic values. Such themes and labels are based on the concepts or categories surfacing from the actual responses and comments without enforcing pre-determined thematic values. Any similar comments or responses regarding the same issue were also labelled under the same thematic codes. For example, any responses regarding ‘female employee promotion policies/actions’ were labelled under a common theme (‘actions to promote gender diversity’) and coded accordingly (e.g. 1-G-A refers to comments relating to Company 1’s attempts to promote gender diversity). The data processed through this initial procedure were further analysed through axial and selective coding. They were to collect

comments and responses that fall under the same or different thematic codes and attempt to connect them to form a story, whether it is negative or positive, as Table 2 shows.

[Insert Table 2 Here]

The analysed data produced from content analysis to grounded theory were put together and tested through cross-case analysis. The cases for this research were selected through theoretical sampling and have unique characteristics; therefore they provide different settings and conditions, which create an environment to test the extent of convergence/divergence as well as institutional roles in convergence/divergence of the two countries' CSR-HRM practises based on the framework in Figure 2, the outcomes of which are presented in the next section.

Findings

With globalisation and increased information availability resulting from rapid technology advancement, boundaries and roles of organisations have become much broader (Tulber et al. 2006). As a result, various international organisations were introduced, exerting regulatory forces, causing transitions in institutional settings to occur (Carney et al. 2006). Thus, it has been argued that institutions are increasingly becoming more homogenous because there is now pressure from levels greater than national level, through coercive, mimetic, and normative process (DiMaggio et al. 1983, 1991), which results in organisational behaviours becoming more homogenous than ever (DiMaggio et al. 1983, 1991; Meyer et al. 1997). However, the findings show rather mixed results.

Expectation measurement (Systematic communication)

Traditional approach

In terms of employee expectation measurement, all six cases show similar approaches and their methods can be categorised into two modes: general survey/questionnaire, and formal meetings between employees and their superiors. The former is undertaken on a regular basis, either annually or quarterly depending on the company, whilst the latter is conducted as formal meetings between the employee/union representatives and the board members, or employees and senior level officers of the same division, all of which are undertaken on a regular basis.

In Company A, the employee survey is conducted on a global scale every year, and 90% of employees respond. The sets of questions are divided into two, based on their purpose. The survey aims to acquire information on employee expectations and monitor their performance over the past year. For these purposes, Company A uses two different standards to analyse the results of the survey: one standard measures to what extent employees have been acting within the company's CSR settings, and the other addresses any possible issues the employees have in relation to the company's CSR policies. Similarly, Company B uses a survey as the main tool to communicate with their employees. Surveys are conducted regularly in two forms: an annual survey that targets the whole population, to which 81% of employees respond; and smaller surveys of 15% of the population every quarter. The purpose of both surveys is to receive employee feedback on the company's actions, CSR-related areas, and any other issues. Unlike the two companies where the surveys are done across the group, Company C allows each business within the group to perform their own survey as they think suitable. This generates more manageable datasets and outcomes than global surveys.

Nonetheless, the surveys of each business are conducted annually, and the response rate is high (96% from the UK businesses), and they measure employee satisfaction and their views on the business.

As pointed out, such annual surveys also occur within Japanese companies. However, their approaches are largely centred around their own unions e.g. the staff union of Company 1. Data analysis reveals that each case studies' staff union plays a key role regarding CSR actions, or indeed any other policy. In the case of Companies 1 and 2, the annual employee surveys are conducted by their staff union. Company 2's senior manager of CSR division responded that *"we do have [a] union survey every year with about 200 questions"*. Company 3, however, takes an extensive approach compared to the other two. Instead of a regular survey, each employee is surveyed with a supervisor-subordinate interview four times a year. In addition, at the beginning of every year, group-level interviews are undertaken to gain better understanding of how they feel about their job and working environment. However, when all three companies were asked if they express their opinions freely, their responses were that they would not speak badly of their own company in general even if they have issues. This is in contrast to the British company's employee, who responded *"we feel free to say anything"*. Such a difference is further shown from a Company 2 employee revelation: *"[I] feel scared to ask ... supervisors"*.

Round-Table communications

The second method of gathering data on employees' expectations is formal meetings between employees and the senior officers. As these are formal gatherings, they are undertaken regularly in the presence of board members and CEOs. However, there are also smaller or casual gatherings that allow employees to raise their voices, which occur either inside or outside the workplace, and have become widely popular with the growth of information technology. Such movements and changes are well presented in all three cases from the UK. In the case of Company A, they prefer to be in dialogue with their employees directly, rather than hearing from their agents. Therefore, they employed two sets of roundtable sessions with the employees, which involved employee representatives and senior officers, managers, and the CEO. These employee representatives do not require any qualifications but votes from fellow employees, regardless of their position or length of service. They discuss their views of the company's policies or practices, or express concerns on behalf of colleagues to their senior managers and CEO. Such sessions are not restricted by which nation the offices are located in. Each employee representative gathers with the members of executives at least once a year to discuss their concerns, which gives both employees and senior managers the opportunity to understand employees' expectations by hearing ideas from different backgrounds. Company B has a similar approach. They hold various forms of conferences for employees at different levels so that they can raise their opinions. Each division has its own divisional conferences as well as smaller forms, which occur more frequently. The divisional conferences happen at least once a year, and there are quarterly meetings with 400-500 people. In addition, instead of setting up their own employee networks across Europe, they work together with social agencies as well as employee representative organisations, such as trade unions, works council, and other employee representative bodies. Company C also has cross-national employee representatives' dialogue sessions every year.

The Japanese companies' formal meetings between employees and the management once again are organised at their enterprise union level. In Company 1, their staff union holds meetings with their branch unions to discuss their concerns regarding the workplace as well as the company's conduct. Such meetings are frequent, 20-30 times a month, at various levels

in different scales regardless of their divisions or units. Any key concerns raised are then addressed at the formal meeting between their representatives and the top management of the group, which includes the president, and this is performed twice a year. The way that Company 2 communicates with their employees is not much different from Company 1: group level and labour-management level gatherings occur three times a year, while unit level meetings occur on a more frequent basis. Company 3 also has various council meetings organised between the management and labour union, which are topic- or issue-oriented, on a regular basis (once or twice a year), and they also collect employee feedback on a personal basis via interviews between the superiors and subordinates, as mentioned earlier, carried out four times a year.

Training

Specialist Approach and its incorporation of CSR training

Using terminology derived from Whitley (2000) terminology, British training can be understood as a 'specialist' approach. In other words, training is role-specific and performance-oriented (Aycan 2005; Stravrou et al. 2010; Whitley 1994, 2000). This is also reflected in the response from Company A's senior manager to a question about how the company supports employees if they wish to receive further training unrelated to their roles: "no, no, it's got to be relevant to our industries, it's got to be relevant to the jobs they are doing". In contrast, Company B showed that they perform a limited level of job rotation as a part of their training. Though it was limited to branches-branches/HQ-subsidary rather than roles, this still indicates some level of transition occurring in the British training system. In the UK the three cases show that employees have a certain degree of freedom in choosing the course, and they are free to receive further training their own expenses out of office hours. The training provided is generally related to the businesses or industries the companies are in, and the employees can choose what they think would be beneficial to them or their career advancement, as the following response from Company A's CSR manager shows:

We provide trainings from MD2 level to degree level, but it is not in some specific area. So it would be down to individuals... when it goes up into higher studies of education, it is down to employees to apply to do what they see fit. Then it's approved all by senior management.

Format of CSR training under specialist approach

Training is provided in two different forms and is of two different kinds: classroom settings and online; mandatory or optional. Interestingly, however, they do not provide CSR-specific training. Although they do provide basic mandatory training on important issues, such as ethics, business conduct, and integrity issues, they are largely relying on on-the-job training, community engagement activities encouraged by the companies, and online distribution of information on those specific areas. Upon entering the company, employees receive regular mandatory training related to the work they do, and this includes how they should be conducting business responsibly, and what they should consider while they are doing their jobs and making decisions. For instance, if one is working in HR, he/she will be trained in diversity, employee well-being, importance of their expectations etc. Hence, in a way this becomes job-specific CSR training. Regarding CSR-related training, Company B's senior manager of CSR division responded as follows:

[I]s it important to us that everybody knows the definition of sustainability? No. Is it important to us that people are thinking long-term, making [the] right decisions, putting the customers higher than what they do? Yes.

[T]o us, it's not really [about] people knowing what sustainability is or what sustainability stands for. It's more about how can we influence the organisation and make sure that kind of responsible behaviour and actions are taking place.

This shows that they believe it is not imperative to have formal classroom training in CSR specifically, because the concepts of CSR are all embedded in each job description. Thus, they are promoting CSR through embedding its concept into the business all-around, rather than 'injecting' the idea.

Generalist approach and its incorporation of CSR training

Thus, while the UK appears to have integrated CSR training into existing job/role-specific training, the Japanese cases show that they are also maintaining 'job rotation' training and including CSR-specific training. In terms of distinctive features of their training mechanisms, each responded with 'job rotation', which has been another traditional Japanese policy, known as the *ringi* system. Such a system is regarded as a generalist approach, in contrast to the UK's specialist approach, as the Nikkei Weekly 2011 September edition describes it. This is further supported by Figure 3, which is the training structure of one of the case companies.

[Insert Figure 3 Here]

As Figure 3 shows, except for management training, role-specific training can be selected by employees based on their own preferences, and role-specific training only occurs once they reach a senior management position.

Form of CSR training under Generalist approach

Due to these traits of the Japanese employee training structure, their CSR training cannot be integrated into job training, as British companies do. Therefore, when employees join the companies, they receive separate CSR-specific training. All three cases show that this is mandatory, and upon completion, assessments are undertaken to qualify for training. This is conducted in two different settings. Companies 1 and 3 provide web-based training for CSR (so-called e-learning), whereas Company 2 used a classroom setting. Furthermore, various material on CSR is frequently distributed to the employees to raise awareness, including magazines, pamphlets, or handbooks. However, archival research also revealed that other than the above-mentioned OJT training and the typical *ringi* system approach, off the job training (Off-JT) (JILPT 2014/5) is gaining significance due to increasing international competition and institutional pressure resulted from globalisation. Though limited, JILPT describes its aim as to provide theoretical, additional knowledge, and specialised skill sets; however, this was yet to be seen from the three cases. Recent studies have also shown a decline in the number of lifetime employees mainly due to an increase in demand for atypical workers and non-regular employees, shifting to service industry, a decrease in the birth-rate and an ageing society (see Keizer 2008; Suzuki 2010; JILPT 2004/5). According to JILPT (2014/5), employers show a preference for employees that can bring immediate impact to the companies, especially with specialised skill sets. Such changes in both areas may indicate the possibility of Japanese organisations moving away from their traditional generalist approach and their typical lifetime employment. This is further supported by the following response from an employee who has moved job three times:

It used to be considered to be taboo to switch the companies you work for, but now it is not so much, especially with foreign companies.

However, two cases conflict with this statement. For instance, Company 1's employees' average time at the company in 2011 was 18.9 years, and Company 3's was 15.4 years; and the training is currently focused on training regular employees (*sogo shoku*), implying that despite changing trends in valuing non-regular employees (*ippan shoku*) as well as employees with specialised abilities, there are still certain areas remaining traditional.

Diversity

In probing organisations' HRM practices in relation to diversity, another element of socially-responsible HRM practices, respondents struggled to give direct reasons, but rather presented their organisations' actions in response to diversity issues.

Gender Diversity

The UK shows a balanced diversity ratio based on OECD data; however, as of 2012 at Company A, 20% of the top management, 22% of senior management, and 24% in middle-level management are female. In the case of Company B, 33% manager positions, 27% of senior managers, and only 19% at executive level are filled by women. This is surprising, as female participation is high in the UK. When the interview respondents were prompted, they calmly stated that they are aware of the issue and attempting to improve the situation. Another respondent from company B, however, argued that *"I think those women's priorit[ies] change and their priority is their family and having that time in their life to pursue looking after their family as oppose[d] to pursuing getting on to the next scale or level of management."* And *"I am a woman, but I do feel a lot of women prioritise ... family over career progression."* Such responses indicate a possible priority change in women; however, no respondents were able to give definite answers, despite the majority of UK respondents being female. Japan, however, showed more severe problems. During the interviews it was discovered that there are certain strata in job status known as *ippan shoku* (non-regular employees) and *sogo shoku* (regular employees); and in Japan it is common knowledge that more males are able to find regular employment than females. One of the employee participants from Company 3 stated that *"I joined this company six years ago, and at that time [there were] seventy new workers, 45 male and 25 female, and amongst the 25 female only three made [it] to sogo shoku"*. This indicates difficulties for females to achieve a certain level in their career, discouraging them to pursue a career at all. This is further shown from an expert's interview, who argued that it is not just an organisational issue, but a social issue. The Nikkei weekly of 29 August 2011 showed only 43% of women who are available to work are willing to do so. In addition, only 25% of the employees of Company 1 are female, 18% for Company 2, and Company 3 shows a little less than 15%. The expert further added that *"Japanese women do not have the concept of working for their career, but their main objective is to find a good husband and settle down"*, showing persistent gender diversity issues resulting from the traditional male-dominated society.

Diversity regarding foreign employees

Similar problems exist in terms of foreign employees in Japan. Unlike the multicultural society of the UK, foreign employees in Japan have experienced a phenomenon known as the 'glass ceiling'. As has been pointed out, their high level of collectivism hardly allows outsiders into their community; as for foreigners, unless they are fluent in Japanese, it is even more difficult for them to penetrate such close-knit networks. For instance, managers from foreign branches require constant communication with their headquarters, but it is generally conducted in Japanese, thus created little appetite for non-Japanese managers (Black et al. 2010). When all three case companies' respondents were prompted they all responded *"we are trying to improve the situation"*. This is also further supported by the JILPT 2014/5

survey, which shows that numbers of foreign workers are gradually increasing; however, 67.2% of employers said they have no plans to employ foreign employees, and even the remaining employers responded that the main pre-condition was not their skill but their ability in Japanese. This is also reflected in the following response from Company 2's CSR team leader:

[t]here is a barrier, communication barrier. Our top management know that it is very important to know (learn) how to speak English, and everybody outside speaks English too. They are realising the situation. Well ... maybe [in] 2-3 years' time [it will get better]

Policies and practices to promote diversity

However, there are also some signs of improved use of external labour market as well as providing a better environment for foreign employees by both the state and organisations. For instance, the Japanese government has set a national objective to promote the intake of foreign employees; and Company 1 has introduced a separate training scheme for foreign employees to meet their needs, while introducing a policy to encourage communication within the company via English and Japanese. To address the gender diversity issue, all three companies are introducing various benefits and flexible working hours for their female employees. In the UK, on the other hand, companies set up various policies or workshops to promote gender diversity. For example, Company A have a strict policy that they hire new employees in a 50:50 gender ratio, and try to maintain the ratio at different levels by encouraging their managers or team leaders to promote/hire more women when the ratio is less than 50%. Company B sets up workshops to enhance their career advancement as well as providing support and training to other female employees by senior employees.

Discussion and Conclusion

Discussion of findings

As Adhikari et al. (2010) point out, “National Culture is an important factor shaping employment relation systems – a factor that directly or indirectly influences work-related cultures” (Adhikari et al. 2010, p. 2425). Such a claim is further supported by many studies that have identified differences in various NBS systems and HRM resulting from societal, cultural, and institutional setting differences (see Salsberg et al. 2011; Dore 1986; Tayeb 1994; Stiles 2009; Sako 1996, 2006; Sako and Sato 1997; Westney 1996; Whitley 1994, 2000, 2007; Amable 2003; Hall and Soskice 2001; Morgan et al. 2005; Stravrou et al. 2010). The evidence also shows strong support for such logic of NBS. The fact that all cases show the use of the language of CSR indicates that there is a certain level of convergence. Furthermore, Japanese cases' responses to a question on their reasons for applying CSR (“because our partner companies want us to” and “because everyone is doing it”) also confirm that the global institutions' coercive and mimetic isomorphic pressures are in play. However, the findings also revealed contrasting results at a micro level.

As argued in the earlier section, relations with institutional pressures and organisations are complex, which requires understanding of organisations, national institutional pressure, and global institutional pressure. The framework in Figure 2 was utilised due to such reasons, and it is possible to discuss the extent of convergence/divergence of the two nations' HRM practices (RQ1) and institutional pressure behind the change (RQ2), using Figure 2. In the framework, it was argued that work organisations, education and training, and diversity are key institutional factors in forming National HRM system. The three key institutional factors influence socially-responsible HRM practices and HR practices to support CSR activities, which consequently affect the CSR outcome of organisations. The presence of work

organisations, in particular, is an institutional factor that can determine the degree of systematic communication within organisations, promoting employee involvement as well as alignment of employees' needs with CSR policy. Japanese enterprise unions' importance and key roles in employee participation and communication largely remains. It still serves a hub function that connects employer and employee, promoting communication between them. On the other hand, the UK, argued to have weak work organisations (Whitley 2000), shows greater change compared to the previous individualist approach. Though their unions remain weak, a new form of work organisation has been established. Regular round-table meetings between senior management and employee representatives, more committed employees, and employee representative meetings are very similar to Japanese enterprise unions and how they operate. This indicates possible convergence in institutional settings, or at least it does not impede convergence of the two nations' CSR-HRM. However, training and education remain unchanged. While this affects ethical labour standards and decent work (i.e. socially responsible HRM practices), the UK maintains its specialist approach and Japan its traditional generalist approach. The British training system incorporates CSR training into job-specific training, rather than CSR-specific training, while Japanese training remains in a classroom setting with assessments at the end, which can be seen as an extension of their generalist education system. Although Japanese cases show training through e-brochure or pamphlets, it does not appear to be training but informing their employees, which seem symbolic rather than substantive change. Amongst the three institutional settings, diversity appear to be the greatest problem of all, especially for Japan. In contrast to the UK's balanced approach to diversity and promoting equal opportunities, which flows from Britain's multicultural society, Japan still shows a high level of collectivist behaviour with low levels of foreign and female employees. This does not mean that they are not promoting equal opportunities: findings suggest they have established various policies and actions to promote suitable work environments for both foreign and female employees. However, there is no clear evidence that they have had positive impacts on diversity issues, though they may suggest the possibility of convergence in policies. These existing differences between the two national CSR-HRM systems indicate that it is not safe to conclude that their CSR-HRM systems are converging. Indeed it is true that the UK's utilisation of employee representatives as well as direct dialogue between senior managements and employees appear somewhat similar to the Japanese enterprise union system. However, the very fact that the other two institutional settings remain the same shows that they have not yet converged, despite the wide use of language of CSR suggesting convergence at a macro level.

Why do such differences at micro level occur in spite of the convergence at macro level? This can be answered with RQ2, which suggests institutional pressure may encourage/impede convergence/divergence of two very different nations' CSR-HRM systems. It has become evident that multiple institutional levels exert influence over their CSR-HRM systems in complex ways, as presented in Figure 2. The global institutional pressure has led both nations to pursue CSR, and incorporate CSR into their existing HRM models. The national institutional pressure leads organisations to operate CSR-HRM that fits the society, as argued by the NBS, and organisations respond to these pressures. As stated previously, the UK operates based on individualistic institutional settings, whereas Japanese institutional settings lie in collectivism. The cases selected have a long history and reflect business system characteristics, and their legitimacy is based on national societal-cultural norms. Thus, the differences between the two cultural systems' institutional pressures play a significant role in the divergence of CSR-HRM at a micro level. The UK's specialist approach, which incorporates CSR training into their existing role-specific training, and the Japanese generalist approach, which provides separate CSR training along with other general job

training in classroom settings, assessments, e-brochures and pamphlets, are clear evidence that national institutional pressures based on their individualist/collectivist societal-cultural norms are more salient than the global institutional pressure. This includes the large numbers of trade unions in the UK, Japanese enterprise unions, and the glass ceiling as well as the gender imbalance in the workforce resulting from the male-dominated society in Japan.

In sum, convergence of CSR-HRM occurs at a macro level due to coercive and mimetic global institutional pressure, but because of greater salience of national institutional influence there is divergence of CSR-HRM at a micro level in societies that share contrasting societal contexts. In other words, there is no universal form of CSR-HRM practice, but rather mixed forms of CSR-HRM, which is established through interactions between global institutional pressure that cause convergence and national institutional pressure (NBS) that cause divergence (Jamali and Neville 2011). The complex interaction and institutional influence on convergence/divergence of HRM have been identified and diagnosed with the aid of the framework developed (Figure 2). Common use of the language of CSR, changes in work organisation institutional settings of the UK, and Japanese attempts to improve organisational policies and actions regarding diversity are showing evidence of convergence as a result of global institutional pressure. However, unchanged training and education institutional settings (generalist and specialist), levels of female labour participation and a hostile environment for foreign employees in Japan, in contrast to the UK's, show divergence caused by greater salience of local institutional pressure and societal-cultural norms i.e. individualism and collectivism, and institutional settings established upon these norms (see Table 3). This finding supports both Jamali and Neville (2011), and Matten and Moon (2008), who emphasised global institutional pressure that drives convergence, but simultaneously divergences are triggered by the differences in NBS. Furthermore, the findings present that societal-cultural norms will continue to influence the local institutional settings and are regarded as more salient over the global institutional pressure, despite ongoing globalisation (Table 3), which also support the 'crossvergence' argument of Ralston (2008) and Jamali and Neville (2011). These norms are deeply rooted in organisations and their behaviours as well as their institutions, and they will continue to influence CSR-HRM in different contexts.

[Insert Table 3]

Conclusion

This study provides a comparative institutional analysis, based on NBS, of the extent of convergence/divergence of CSR-HRM in two different societal-cultural contexts, and the institutional role in this change. Global pressure has led the two nations' HRM to converge to a certain extent, despite the differences between the two societies. However, due to those differences in their societal-cultural norms and institutional settings (NBS), they also show divergences. Understanding the complexities in the institutional relations with national HRM of two different societal contexts could not have been done without the assistance of the proposed framework in Figure 2. Drawing on Jamali and Neville (2011), the paper incorporated Whitley's (1994) concept of NBS with Cooke and He's (2010) concept of CSR-HRM's relationship to compile an institutional framework for CSR-HRM research. It positions organisations as the central unit of analysis, and allow researchers to understand complex interactions of institutional pressure at any level in any context. With its assistance, the paper was able to confirm that the convergence of the two national CSR-HRMs resulted from the mimetic and coercive isomorphism caused by global institutional pressure. However, at the same time, the local institutional pressure (i.e. NBS) appears to be deeply rooted in their operations and institutional settings, and is thus more salient in diversity and education

and training areas, and showing diversified HRM in the two nations. As a result, it can be concluded that CSR-HRM in two different societal contexts are not uniform or standardised, but convergence and divergence co-exist due to their differences in NBS, resulting in the use of 'best-fit' models of HRM (Pudelko 2009; Stiles 2009) as well as indication of possible 'crossvergence' at global level.

In terms of practical implications, this paper strongly argues that it is important for organisations to understand their societal-cultural context before pursuing CSR upon entering a new organisational field. For example, Japanese society shows low female labour participation, and their *sogo shoku* and *ippan shoku* classifications discourage women further from pursuing careers. Therefore, providing various forms of benefits to female employees may not be enough to encourage women to participate. However, Company A's (UK) policy of a 50:50 gender ratio for new employees may be a better practice for a nation that suffers from similar social issues like Japan, as it forces organisations to provide equal opportunities and gives assurance to females as well as encouraging them to participate. Thus, understanding the national institutional settings and societal-cultural norms, it becomes possible to take appropriate actions, which can promote a stronger CSR-HRM outcome. CSR-HRM does not need to converge: integration of convergence and divergence may suit organisations in a more competitive way. Each national context and set of norms and values is different. A HRM that worked well in one context may not work well in another, as each NBS has its own distinctiveness that allow certain mechanisms to be more appropriate. Therefore, through understanding local values and norms that are consistent with CSR, it becomes possible to form more systematic and 'best-fitting' models of CSR-HRM for the context.

CSR is not yet well standardised, and therefore much effort has been paid to present frameworks or guidelines to promote convergence of CSR. Wang and Juslin (2009) argued that CSR is a concept derived from the West, and its understanding is not well established in the East, thus an Eastern form of CSR may be necessary. However, this paper argues that it is not necessary, but it is important to understand the complexity of institutional relations with organisations' CSR-HRM, which include global HRM institutional pressure, national societal-cultural values and norms, national HRM institutional pressure, and responses from organisations. When the complexity of these relationships is understood, more systematic and stronger forms of CSR can be realised. This paper provides an overview of the institutional pressures and relationships in terms of CSR-HRM from two very different NBS contexts, using the institutional framework introduced. However, it can further improve by making two additions. As pointed out in Figure 2, global institutional pressure can affect the national HRM institutional framework, which also can influence the existing norms, as shown by the converged institutional settings. Therefore, when the global institutional pressure becomes more salient than the existing national HRM institutional framework, the changes in the relationships can be measured again using Figure 2. Furthermore, future research should consider small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). They are equally important national economic contributors, and share a bigger global market than MNCs. Therefore the addition of SMEs will certainly strengthen the quality of the study.

References

- Ackroyd, S. and Fleetwood, S. (2000) *Realist perspectives on Management and Organisation*, Routledge, London
- Adhikari, R.D., Budhwar, P., and Hiraswa, K. (2010) 'Changing employment relation

- systems in Japan: Cases of the Mitsubishi Chemical Group and the Federation of Shinkin Banks', *The International Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol. 21 (13-15): 2414-2437
- Ahmadjian, C. & Lincoln, J. (2001) 'Keiretsu, Governance, and Learning: Case Studies in change from the Japanese Automotive Industry', *Organisation Science*, Vol. 12(6): 683-701
- Aguilera, R., Rupp, D., Williams, C., and Ganapathi, J. (2007) 'Putting the S back in Corporate Social Responsibility: A multilevel theory of social change in organisations', *Academy of Management Review* Vol. 32(3): 836-863
- Aguinis, H. & Glavas, A. (2012) 'What we know and Don't know about Corporate Social Responsibility: A Review and Research Agenda', *Journal of Management* Vol. 38(4): 932-68
- Albinger, H. and Freeman, S. (2000) 'Corporate social performance and attractiveness as an employer to different job seeking populations', *Journal of Business Ethics* Vol. 28(3): 243-253
- Allen, F. & Zhao, M. (2007) 'The Corporate Governance model of Japan: Shareholders are not Rulers', *PKU Business Review* 36: 98-102
- Allen, G. (1962) *A short Economic History of Modern Japan*, George Allen & Unwin Ltd., London (second edition)
- Allen, G. (1981) *The Japanese Economy*, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, London
- Amable, B. (2003) *The diversity of Modern Capitalism*, Oxford University Press, New York
- Appelbaum, E., Bailey, T., Berg, P. and Kalleberg, A. (2000) *Manufacturing Advantage*, ILR Press.
- Araki, T. (2002) *Labour and Employment law in Japan*, Japanese Institute of Labour
- Aycan, Z. (2005) 'The interplay between cultural and institutional/structural contingencies in Human Resource Management Practices', *The International Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol. 16(7): 1083-1119
- Barney, J. (1995) 'Looking inside for competitive advantage', *Academy of Management Executive*, 9: 49-61
- Bach, S. (2002) 'Public-sector Employment Relations Reform under Labour: Muddling Through on Modernisation?' *British Journal of Industrial Relations* Vol. 40(2): 319-339
- Bae, J., Chen, S.J., and Lawler J. (1998) 'Variations in human resource management in Asian countries: MNC home-country and host-country effects', *International Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol. 9(4): 653-670
- Batt, R. (2002) 'Managing customer services: human resource practices, quit rates, and sales growth', *Academy of Management Journal*, 45: 587-97
- Bauman, C. and Skitka, L. (2012) 'Corporate social responsibility as a source of employee', *Research in Organisational Behaviour* Vol.32: 63-86
- Becker, B. and Gerhart, B. (1996) 'The impact of human resource management on organizational performance: progress and prospects', *Academy of Management Journal*, 39: 779-801.
- Beecher, S., Pucik, V., Stephen, J., and Campbell, N. (1996) 'The Transnational Challenge: Performance and Expatriates Presence in the Overseas Affiliates of Japanese MNCs', *CAHRS Working Paper Series* Vol. 96(6)
- Beurden, P. & Gossling, T. (2008) 'The Worth of Values – A literature review on the Relations Between Corporate Social and Financial Performance', *Journal of Business Ethics* Vol. 82(2): 497-424
- Bjorkman, I., Fey, C., and Park H.J. (2007) 'Institutional theory and MNC subsidiary HRM practices: evidence from a three-country study', *Journal of International Business Studies* 38: 430-446
- Black, J. & Morrison, A. (2010) *Sunset In The Land of The Rising Sun: Why Japanese Multi-national Corporations will struggle in the Global future*, Palgrave Macmillan, England

- Brewster, C., Mayrhofer, W., and Morley, M. (2004), *Human Resource Management in Europe: Evidence of Convergence*, Elsevier, Oxford
- Buckley, P., Horn, S. (2009) 'Japanese Multinational Enterprises in China: Successful Adaptation of Marketing Strategies', *Long Range Planning* Vol. 42(4): 495-517
- Carney, M. Gedajlovic, E. and Yang, X. (2009) 'Varieties of Asian Capitalism: Toward an institutional theory of Asian enterprise', *Asia Pacific Journal of Management* 26: 361-380
- Carroll, A. (1979) 'A Three-Dimensional Conceptual Model of Corporate Performance', *The Academy of Management Review* Vol. 4(4): 497-505
- Cheffins, B. (2001) 'History and the Global Governance Revolution: The UK Perspective', ECGI working paper series
- Chong, D. (2000), *Rational Lives: Norms and Values in Politics and Society* (American Politics and Political Economy Series), University of Chicago Press, USA
- Cooke, F. L. and He, Q. (2010) 'The Transnational Challenge: Performance and Expatriates Presence in the Overseas Affiliates of Japanese MNCs' Corporate social responsibility and HRM in China: a study of textile and apparel enterprises', *Asia Pacific Business Review* Vol. 16(3): 355-376
- Crane, A., McWilliams, A., Matten, D., Moon, J. and Siegel, D. (2008), *The Oxford Handbook of Corporate Social Responsibility*, Oxford University Press, Oxford
- Davies, R. and Ikeno, O. (2002) *The Japanese Mind: Understanding contemporary Japanese Culture*, Tuttle Publishing, Singapore
- DiMaggio, P. and Powell, W. (1983) 'Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organisational Fields', *American Sociological Review* Vol. 48(2): 147-160
- DiMaggio, P. and Powell, W. (1991) *The New Institutionalism in Organisational Analysis*, University of Chicago Press, London
- Dore, R. (1973) *British Factory – Japanese Factory: The Origins of National Diversity in Industrial Relations*, University of Chicago Press, Los Angeles
- Dore, R. (1986) *Flexible Rigidities: Industrial policy and structural adjustment in the Japanese economy 1970-80*, Athlone Press, London
- Dore, R. (2006) 'Japan's shareholder revolution', *CentrePiece* Winter 2006/7: 22-24
- Dow, S. & McGuire, J. (2009) 'Propping and tunnelling: Empirical evidence from Japanese keiretsu', *Journal of Banking & Finance*, Vol. 33(10): 1817-1828
- Eisenhardt, K. (1989) 'Building Theories from Case Study Research', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 14(4): 532-550
- Eisenhardt, K. & Graebner, M. (2007) 'Theory Building from Cases: Opportunities And Challenges', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 50(1): 25-32
- Garriga, E. & Mele, D. (2004) 'Corporate Social Responsibility Theories: Mapping the Territory', *Journal of Business Ethics* Vol. 53(1-2): 51-71
- Gerhart, B. and Fang, M. (2005) 'National Culture and Human Resource Management: Assumptions and Evidence', *International Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol. 16(6): 971-986
- Geva, A. (2008) 'Three Models of Corporate Social Responsibility: Interrelationships between Theory, Research, and Practice', *Business and Society Review* Vol. 113(1): 1-41
- Godfrey, P. & Hatch, N. (2007) 'Research Corporate Social Responsibility: An Agenda for the 21st Century', *Journal of Business Ethics* Vol. 70(1): 87-98
- Guest, D. & Conway, N. (1999) 'Peering into the Black Hole: The Downside of the New Employment Relations in the UK', *British Journal of Industrial Relations* Vol. 37(3): 367-389
- Guest, D., Michie, J., Conway, N., and Sheehan, M. (2003) 'Human Resource Management and Corporate Performance in the UK', *British Journal of Industrial Relations* Vol. 41(2):

291-314

Guthrie, J. (2001) 'High involvement work practices, turnover and productivity: evidence from New Zealand', *Academy of Management Journal*, 44: 180-90

Hall, P. & Soskice, D. (2001) *Varieties of Capitalism: The Institutional Foundations of Comparative Advantage*, Oxford University Press, New York

Hasegawa, H. & Noronha, C. (2009) *Asian Business & Management: Theory, Practice and Perspectives*, Palgrave MacMillan

Hashimoto, M. (1995) 'Investment in Employment Relations in Japanese Firms', *Journal of the Japanese and International Economies* 9: 75-95

Hatvany, N. & Pucik, V. (1981) 'An Integrated Management System: Lessons from the Japanese Experience' *Academy of Management Review* Vol. 6(3)

Hyman, R. (2004), *Varieties of Capitalism, National Industrial Relations Systems and Transnational Challenges in International Human Resource Management* (2nd ed.), eds. A.-W. Harzing and J. van Ruysseveldt, Sage, London pp. 411–432.

Hofstede, G. (2001) *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviours, Institutions, and Organisations across nations*, Sage Publications, USA (2nd edition)

Human Resource Management International Digest Vol. 17(2): 27-29

Human Resource Management International Digest Vol. 17(3): 23-26

Huselid, M. (1995) 'The impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Turnover, Productivity, and Corporate Productivity, and Corporate Financial Performance', *Academy of Management Journal* Vol.38 (3): 635-872

Ignjatovic, M. and Sveltic, I. (2003) 'European HRM clusters', *Estonian Business Review* Vol. 17: 25-39

Inyang, B. J., Awa, H. O., and Enuoh, R. O. (2011) 'CSR-HRM Nexus: Defining the role engagement of the Human Resources Professionals', *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, Vol. 2(5): 118-126

Jacoby, M.S. (2005) *The Embedded Corporation: Corporate Governance and Employment Relations in Japan and the United States*, Princeton University Press, Princeton

Jamali, D. & Neville, B. (2011) 'Convergence Versus Divergence of CSR in Developing Countries: An Embedded Multi-Layered Institutional Lens', *Journal of Business Ethics* 102: 599-621

Jepperson, R. (2001) 'The Development and Application of Sociological Neo-institutionalism', *European University Institute*, EUI Working Papers RSC 2001/5

Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training (JILPT), Labour Situation in Japan and Analysis 2004/5

Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training (JILPT), Labour Situation in Japan and Analysis 2014/15

Johnston, S. (1995) 'Managerial Dominance of Japan's Major Corporations', *Journal of Management*, Vol. 21(2): 191-209

Jonsen, K., Tatli, A., Özbilgin, M. F., and Bell, M.P. (2013). 'The tragedy of the commons: Reframing workforce diversity', *Human Relations* Vol.66(2), 271–294

Jung EeHwan & Cheon Byung-you (2006) 'Economic Crisis and Changes in Employment Relations in Japan and Korea', *Asian Survey* Vol. 46(3): 457- 476

Kaufman, B. (2004) 'The Global Evolution of Industrial Relations', *International Labour Organisation*

Kaufman, B. (2010) 'A theory of the firm's demand for HRM practices', *International Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol. 21(4-6): 615-636

Kato, T. (2001) 'The End of Lifetime Employment in Japan?: Evidence from National Surveys and Field Research', *Journal of the Japanese International Economies* 15: 489-514

Kazuaki, N. (2012) 'Corporate Japan: woeful lack of outside directors', *The Japan Times*

News online edition.

<<http://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2012/01/17/reference/corporate-japan-woeful-lack-of-outside-directors/#.UxsjOvnV-20>>

Keeley, T.D. (2001) *International Human Resource Management in Japanese Firms: Their Greatest Challenge*, Palgrave, New York

Keizer, A. (2008) 'Non-regular employment in Japan: continued and renewed dualities', *Work, employment and society* Vol. 22(3): 407-425

Kopp, R. (1994) 'International Human Resource Policies and Practices in Japanese, European, and United States Multinationals', *Human Resource Management* Vol. 33(4): 581-599

Kostova, T. & Roth, K. (2002) 'Adoption of an organisational practice by subsidiaries of multinational corporations: Institutional and relational effects', *Academy of Management Journal* Vol.45: 215-233

Lee, S.M. & Choi, I.C. (2002) *Revisiting Corporate Social Responsibility*, Samsung Economic Research Institute

MacDuffie, J.P. (1995) 'Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance: Flexible production system in the world auto industry', *Industrial and Labour Relations Review*, 48: 197-221

Matsuzuka, Y. (2002) *Changes in the permanent employment system in Japan*, Routledge, New York

Matten, D. & Moon, J. (2008), 'Implicit' and 'Explicit' CSR: A conceptual framework for a comparative understanding of Corporate Social Responsibility', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 33(2): 404-424

Margolis, J. & Walsh, J. (2003), 'Misery Loves Companies: Rethinking Social Initiatives by Business', *Administrative Science Quarterly* Vol. 48: 268-305

Meyer J. (2008), 'Reflections on Institutional Theories of Organisations', in *The Sage Handbook of Organisational Institutionalism*, Sage Publication

Meyer, J. and Rowan, B. (1977) 'Institutionalised Organisations: Formal structure as myth and ceremony', *American Journal of Sociology* Vol. 83(2): 340-363

Meyer, J, Boli, J., Thomas, G., and Ramirez, F. (1997) 'World society and the nation-state', *American Journal of Sociology* Vol. 103(1): 141-181

McGuire, J. & Dow, S. (2009) 'Japanese *keiretsu*: Past, Present, Future', *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, Vol. 26(2): 333-351

Morck, R. & Nakamura, M. (2005) 'A Frog in a Well Knows Nothing of the Ocean: A History of Corporate Ownership in Japan', in *A History of Corporate Governance around the World: Family Business Groups to Professional Managers*, National Bureau of Economic Research

Morgan G., Whitley R., and Moen E. (2005) *Changing Capitalisms? Internationalization, Institutional Change and systems of economic organization*, Oxford University Press, New York

Morris, J., Wilkinson, B., and Munday, M. (2000) 'Farewell to HRM? Personnel practices in Japanese Manufacturing plants in the UK', *International Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol. 11 (6)

Muller-Camen, M., Almond, P., Gunnigle, P., Quintanilla, J., and Tempel, A. (2001) 'Between home and host country: Multinational and employment relations in Europe', *Industrial Relations Journal* Vol. 32(5): 435-448

Nakamura, M. (2006) 'Japanese corporate governance practices in the post-bubble era: Implications of institutional and legal reforms in the 1990s and early 2000s', *International Journal of Disclosure and Governance*, Vol. 3(3): 233-261

Nikkei Weekly, Sept 2011

Nikkei Weekly, Aug 2011

- North, D. (1990) *Institutions, Institutional Change and Economic Performance*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
- Ogoshi, Y. (2006) 'Current Japanese Employment Practices and Industrial Relations: The Transformation of permanent employment and seniority based wage system', *Asian Business & Management* (5): 469-485
- Ohira, K. (2011) 'Japan to require big firms to assign outside directors', The Asahi Shimbun November 26, 2011 Online edition
<<https://ajw.asahi.com/article/economy/AJ201111260006>>
- Okazaki, T. & Fujiwara, M. (1999) *The Japanese Economic System and its Historical Origins*, Oxford University Press, Oxford
- Oliver, N. and Wilkinson, B. (1988) *The Japanisation of British Industry*, Blackwell Publishers, Oxford
- Ono, H. (2010) 'Lifetime employment in Japan: Concepts and measurements', *Journal of Japanese International Economies* 24: 1-27
- Owen, G. (2001) 'Corporate governance in Britain: is incremental reform enough?' CGEP Project Paper
- Patton M. (1990) 'Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods', in *SAGE Publications Inc.* (2nd edition), London, UK
- Perry, C. (1998) 'Processes of a case study methodology for postgraduate research in marketing', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 32(9/10): 785-802
- Phillip, R. (2003), *Stakeholder Theory and Organisational Ethics*, Berrett-Koehler Publishers, USA
- Presuss, L., Haunschild, A. and Matten, D. (2009) 'The rise of CSR: implications for HRM and employee representation', *The International Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol. 20(4): 953-973
- Pudelko, M. (2009) 'The end of Japanese Style Management?' *Long Range Planning*, Vol. 42(4): 439-462
- Ralston, D. A. (2008) 'The Crossvergence Perspective: Reflections and Projections', *Journal of International Business Studies* Vol. 39(1): 27-40
- Ryall, J. (2013) 'Japanese firms need more women board members, outside directors and foreigners', JapanToday online edition.
<<http://www.japantoday.com/category/lifestyle/view/japanese-firms-need-more-women-board-members-outside-directors-and-foreigners>>
- Saeed, M & Arshad, F (2012) 'Corporate social responsibility as a source of competitive advantage: The mediating role of social capital and reputational capital' *Database Marketing & Customer Strategy Management* Vol. 19(4): 219-232
- Sako, M. (1992) *Prices, Quality and Trust: Inter-firm Relations in Britain and Japan*, Cambridge University Press, New York
- Sako, M. (2006) *Shifting Boundaries of the Firm*, Oxford University Press, Cambridge
- Sako, M. and Sato, H. (1997) *Japanese Labour and Management in Transition: Diversity, Flexibility and Participation*, Routledge, London
- Salsberg, B., Chandler, C., and Chhor, H. (2011) *Reimagining Japan: The Quest for a Future That Works*, Viz Media LLC, Japan
- Scott, R. (1987) 'The Adolescence of Institutional Theory', *Administrative Science Quarterly* Vol. 32(4): 493-511
- Sharma, S., Sharma, J. & Devi, A. (2009) 'Corporate social responsibility: The key role of human resource management', *Business Intelligence Journal*, 2(1): 205-213
- Stiles, P. (2009) 'The Changing Nature of the Japanese Business System and Its Impact on Asia', *Long Range Planning*, Vol. 42(4): 427-438
- Stravrou. E., Brewster. C., and Chralambous, C., 'Human Resource Management and firm

- performance in Europe through the lens of business systems: best fit, best practice or both?' *The International Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol.21 (7-9): 933-962
- Suzuki H. (2010) 'Employment Relations in Japan: Recent Changes under Global Competition and Recession', *Journal of Industrial Relations* Vol. 52(3): 387-401
- Tayeb, M. (1994) 'Japanese managers and British culture: a comparative case study', *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 5(1): 145-166
- Tempel, A. and Walgenbach, P. (2007), Global Standardisation of Organisational Forms and Management Practices? What New institutionalism and the Business-Systems Approach can learn from each other, *Journal of Management Studies* Vol. 44(1): 1-24
- Toms, S. & Wright, M. (2002) 'Corporate Governance, Strategy and Structure in British Business History, 1950-2000', *Business History*, Vol. 44(3): 91-124
- Turban, D. and Greening, D., (1997) 'Corporate social performance and organizational attractiveness to prospective employees', *Academy of management journal* Vol. 40(3): 658-672
- Waddock, S. (2008), 'Building a New Institutional Infrastructure for Corporate Responsibility', *Academy of Management Perspectives* Vol. 22(3): 87-108
- Wall T.D., and Wood S.J. (2005) 'The romance of human resource management and business performance, and the case for big science', *Human Relations* Vol. 58(4): 429-462
- Wallis E., Stuart, M., and Greenwood, I. (2005) 'Learners of the workplace unite!: an empirical examination of the UK trade union learning representative initiative', *Work, employment and society* Vol. 19(2): 283-304
- Wang, W. and Juslin, H. (2009) 'The impact of Chinese culture on Corporate Social Responsibility: The Harmony Approach' *Journal of Business Ethics* Vol. 88(3): 433-451
- Westney, E. (1996) 'The Japanese Business System: Key Features and Prospects for Change', MIT Japan Program Working Paper Series 96-26
- Whitley, R. (1994) *Business Systems in East Asia: Firms, Markets, and Societies*, Sage Publications
- Whitley, R. (2000) *Divergent Capitalisms: The Social Structuring and Change of Business Systems*, Oxford University Press
- Whitley, R. (2007) *Business systems and organisational capabilities: The institutional structuring of competitive competences*, Oxford University Press
- Wills, J. (2001) 'Community unionism and trade union renewal in the UK: moving beyond the fragments at last?' *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers* 26: 465-483
- Wright, P.M., Dunford, B.B., and Snell, S.A. (2001) 'Human resources and the resource based view of the firm', *Journal of Management* Vol. 27(6): 701-721
- Yan, Y. (2003) 'A comparative study of human resource management practices in international joint ventures: the impact of national origin', *International Journal of Human Resource Management* Vol. 14(4): 487-510
- Zhao, L. (2014), Convergence of East-West Business Management Philosophy: The Significant Development of Chinese CSR Theory and Practices, in Gabriel Eweje (ed.) *Corporate Social Responsibility and Sustainability: Emerging Trends in Developing Economies (Critical Studies on Corporate Responsibility, Governance and Sustainability, Volume 8)* Emerald Group Publishing Limited, pp.79 - 115

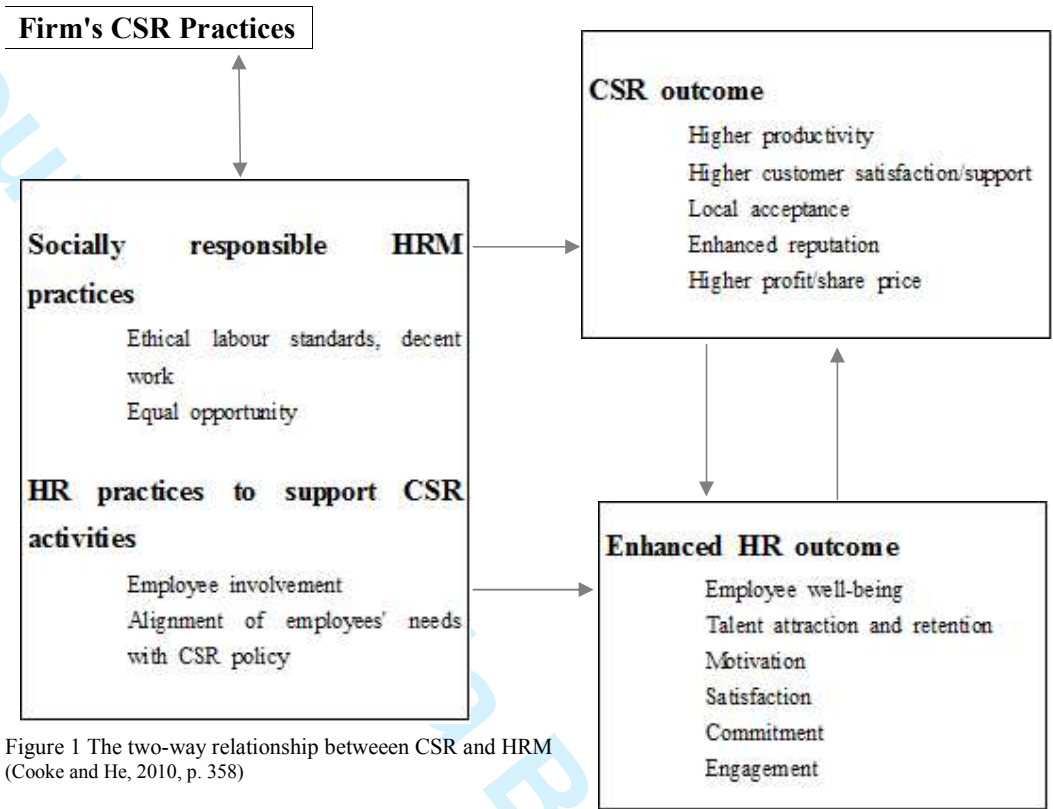


Figure 1 The two-way relationship between CSR and HRM (Cooke and He, 2010, p. 358)

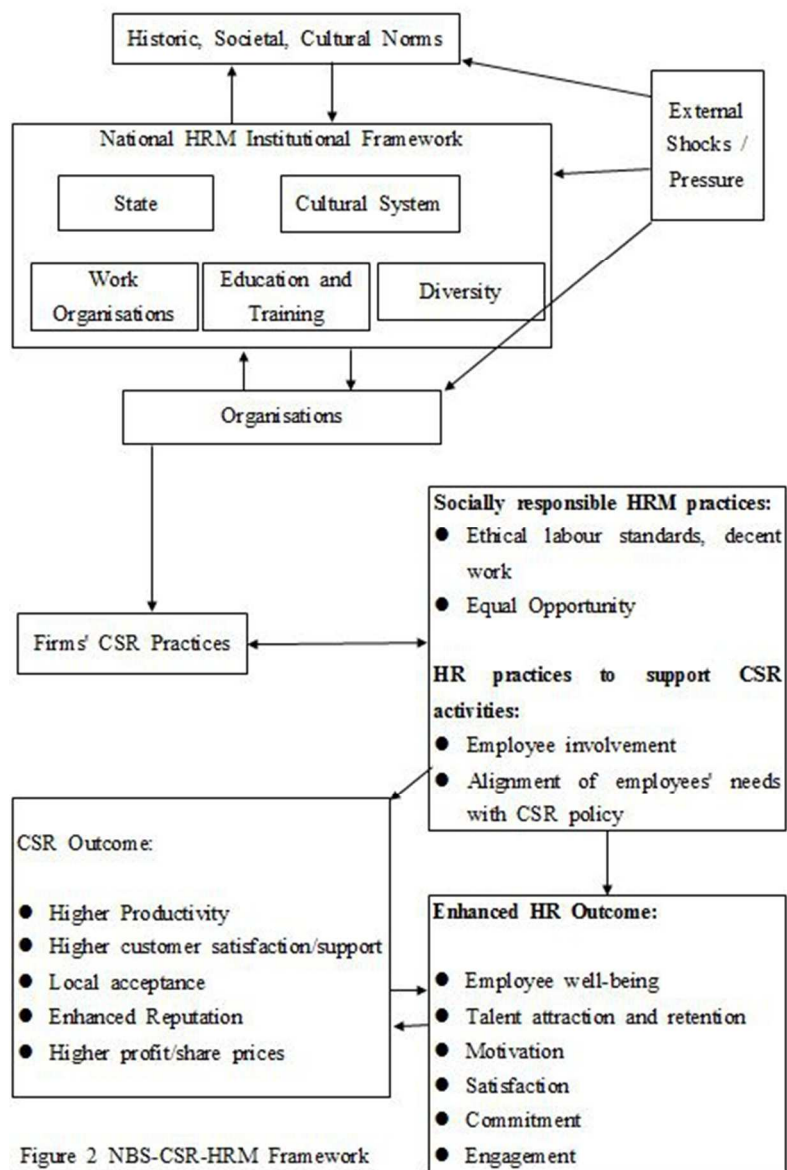


Figure 2 NBS-CSR-HRM Framework

NBS-CSR-HRM Framework

121x187mm (96 x 96 DPI)

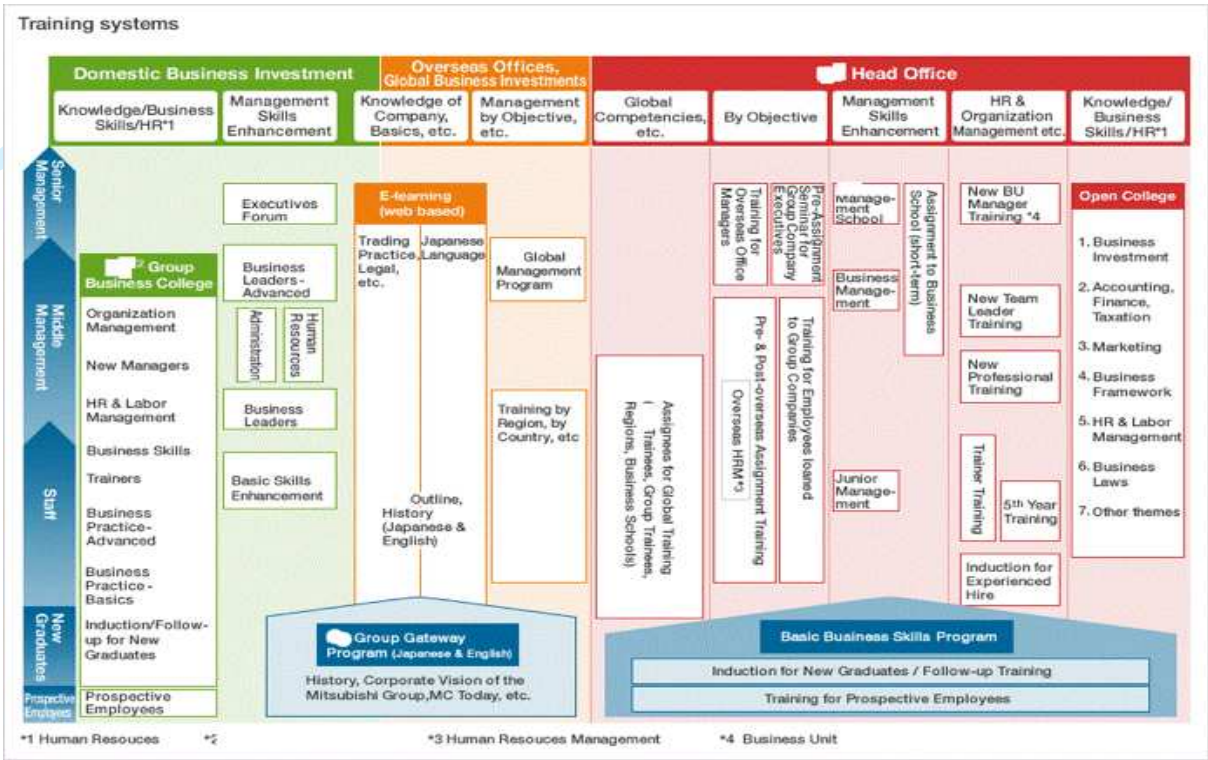


Figure 3 Japanese Company's training mechanism

Table 1 Case Profile

	UK			Japan		
	Company A	Company B	Company C	Company 1	Company 2	Company 3
Revenue (\$mil)	Top Range	Mid-Range	Mid-Range	Top Range	Mid-Range	Low Range
No. of employees	80,000+	100,000+	100,000+	60,000+	100,000+	20,000+
Type	Publicly listed	Publicly listed	Privately owned	Publicly listed	Publicly listed	Privately owned
History (established year)	1982	1727	1984 (Privately owned since 2006)	1954	1899	1899
Note	One of the largest corporations in the UK	One of the largest financial organisations globally that has been owned by the UK holders	The largest privately-owned enterprise in the UK Turned private through M&A, showing the distinctive business culture of the UK	One of the oldest <i>keiretsu</i> companies in Japan Formerly played the central role in <i>keiretsu</i> network	One of the oldest electronic companies in Japan Only original electronic company that operates in both general and household markets	One of the oldest and largest privately-owned companies in Japan M&A never occurred, unlike in the UK

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 2 Coding procedure of data

Code	Theme	Comments
B-D-EM	Employee measurement	... we have ... over 40 trade unions ... employee representative bodies
B-D-EE	Employee Engagement	We listen to our people in a variety of ways including focus groups, opinion surveys and conferences
B-D-ED	Employee measurement	Nearly 100,000 people shared their views in our annual employee opinion survey.

Table 3 Convergence and divergence of British and Japanese CSR-HRM

	Institutional change
Convergence	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Common use of the language of CSR show global institutional pressure's coercive and mimetic isomorphism• Increased use of work organisations that is similar to Japanese enterprise unions for effective communication (UK)• Introduction of various forms of policies and practices to promote diversity (Japan)
Divergence	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• National societal-cultural values and norms are deeply rooted in their operations• UK's specialist approach and Japanese generalist approach in training and education remain strong• Japan largely relies on their enterprise unions in communicating with employees• 'Glass ceiling' and lack of female labour participation still remain in Japan despite their efforts